

FORMING A COMPLETE RECORD OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF ALL PUBLIC COMPANIES.

[PRICE 6D.]

By heating the air forced into the furnace to 450 deg. or higher, the oxygen combines with the fuel instead of with the iron, and the iron even the oxygen of the air of the mid-dust does not take out of the fuel; a large portion of it makes its way through the fire, producing a warmer heat, which is of use in melting the iron. It is common to melt the fuel. The disadvantage of melting the iron of the hot blast, the heat is concentrated at the bottom of the furnace, of course, and the air at that point is a very high temperature, then when diffused causes a greater waste of oxygen. The common

Severance. — It is to witness as with one that rises early ; in the beholds the morning red, then impatiently looks for the sun, and appears is blinded. — Goethe.

GEOLOGY.—A NEW SYSTEM OF PHILOSOPHY.—No. VI.
BY HENRY GRAHAM MONTAGUE, ESQ.

THE EARTH.

Who is he would stand at the portals of wisdom, and lay down limits to the mind's advance, saying to the soul thirsting after knowledge, "thus far shalt thou go, and no further." Is not the Mind, in its conception, an eternity within itself? it bows in obedience to no earthly power. It cannot be fashioned to any set of ideas—but, soaring beyond them, in the pinnacles of imagination, it forms and fashions others of its own—it rests not content in the palace of the east, but walks through the earth unfettered by time or space—it pries into all things, and lives, and moves, and acts, as though unconscious of the clay which binds it to the earth—it laughs to scorn the manacles of fanaticism, the dungeon's gloom, the restraints of bolts and bars, and seeks enjoyment from each dreary painful scene, in sunny fields and cloudless skies—it turns, with loathing from what men call pleasure, because it sees disease and death concealed within the cup—the knees may bend in prayer, the lips may move, but yet the Mind will wander far away, as though its innate pride disdains the homage paid—on the bed of death, when the body experiences the pangs of dissolution, still, still it wanders in its full-fledged strength, through palaces and bowers, deriving health and youth from every glowing scene it visits—it proclaims power within itself—pains, grief, or madness, may cloud its conceptions, but, from the midst of desolation, the consciousness of its beauty still shoot forth, betokening its presence and its power.

THE EARTH is the one planetary body of which man forms an integral part, being a lesser system of systems, embracing, in the one whole, numerous forms, bodies, principles, and proximate principles—united, uniting, suffering, and contending, within a prescribed medium. It is a reproduction of form, from form previously existing—an union of the primary principles with each other, and of proximate principles proceeding therefrom—a congeries of ethereal, aerial, vaporous, aqueous, and consolidated bodies, progressively developed—of elementary principles and proximate principles, locally or generally diffused throughout the ONE WHOLE; it is a changed and changing body, and a perpetually varying result; it is produced, and still producing, ever changing in its parts, disposition, quantities, qualities, capacities, and powers; it is life and death necessarily united together—good and evil necessarily depending on each other. It is a body having capacities and powers of its own, but dependent for its manifest phenomena on the sun, which is the superior planetary body, and of the system of which it forms an integral part, for the greater and fuller development of capacity and power. The earth is produced by an uninterrupted series of results, locally or generally manifest—of orders, genera, and species, generation succeeding generation, order arising from order, orders diverging into genera, genera diverging into species—produced simultaneously, or in succession—produced from the primary elements, or from the primary elements and the proximate principles proceeding therefrom, in their admixture.

"The human understanding," says the learned Bacon, "resembles not a dry light, but admits a tincture of the will and passions, which generate their own system accordingly, for man always believes more readily that which he prefers. He, therefore, rejects difficulties, from want of patience in investigation—scurbidity, because it limits his hope—the depth of Nature, from superabundance—the light of experiment, from arrogance and pride, lest his mind should appear to be occupied with common and varying objects—paradoxes, from a fear of the opinion of the vulgar—in short, his feelings imbue and corrupt his understanding in innumerable and imperceptible ways." Modern geologists, while they condemn speculative philosophy, attempt to found systems, and to fashion worlds, by the agency of volcanoes, or by a superficial examination of the Devonian, Cambrian, or other strata, confounding and reversing the order of Nature in support of their several theories; they lay down the maxim that science must study only the laws of phenomena, and never their mode of production, simply because the difficulties in the way of investigation are too great to be grappled with by superficial observation; they reject the depths of Nature from being unable to fathom them; they studiously conceal facts by numerous unmeaning words, and even pervert those facts, lest the pedestal of fame and popular applause on which they stand should be removed from beneath their feet. As a branch of the great tree of human wisdom, geology has done much good service, but in the attempt of its professors to generalise and found systems upon particular phenomena, its end and aim, which is to instruct the multitude, and to initiate the learned in the mysteries of Nature, has been wholly lost sight of. Thus, for instance, rocks of defined character are termed limestone, granite, porphyry, basalt, or sandstone, and, so far, such classification is good, but of each of these products there are countless varieties, but all distinguished under one general term—transition rocks. Again, we have diluvial, alluvial, and anti-diluvial—terms founded upon erroneous suppositions and by-gone prejudices. Again, because volcanic action shifts the material of a stratum, or strata, from beneath, and spreads it over the surface of the earth, the material being sometimes, but not at all times, altered by the act of change, this ejected matter is termed volcanic, and should it be consolidated, the rock is termed a volcanic product, and the whole system of crystalline rocks is referred to volcanic action—Nature being thus made the subordinate agent to the phenomena consequent on production. Again, on the same suppositions, we have the coined terms, primary and secondary, and numerous others, being necessary consequences of this theory, and these false inductions being dogmatically insisted upon as established facts, Nature is repeatedly lost sight of, being made the basis of assertions every way at variance with the manifest phenomena. Again, because, in the action of running streams, which decompose rocks, and carry off the material of beds, as also the material one which, or through which they pass, aggregates of sand are formed, as also beds of clay, such is rashly declared to be the one general process of Nature, the inference being, that all sands and clays are formed from disintegrated rock, whereas such phenomena are but local, and the rocks are produced from the disintegrated matter. Again, because a general decrease of the waters is manifest in all parts of the earth, and an increase, or increment of the waters, is manifest in localities only, the latter phenomena is made to take precedence of the former, instead of vice versa. Again, because the stratum of earth, locally disposed in the cold regions of the north, consists of the organic bodies of oceanic animals and vegetables, which could only have existed in this manner within the range of the tropical band, the most groundless imaginings are put forth, in order to account for so simple a phenomenon, instead of drawing true inductions from existing phenomena. Volcanoes are written on the supposed centrifugal and centripetal force—attraction and repulsion—and on the nature and qualities of the interior of this planetary body, some dogmatists insist that it is of consolidated matter, increasing in density towards the centre; others having a nucleus of adamantine qualities; others, and the more numerous, are equally strenuous in asserting it to be a liquid fiery mass—a kind of high pressure engine, having safety-valves, all of which they profess to describe by diagrams, illustrative of this imagining—say, they declare this fiery element with a certain degree of rotatory action, by which alternate elevation and depression take place on the surface of the earth, and are found digging Arimæan wells in hopes of finding hot water for the general use of mankind. In the remarks of all these theorists the light of observation, and experiment is admitted only so far as is accordant with these theoretical views, the *modus operandi* of Nature being essentially rejected.

In my preceding articles I have spoken of the ocean as a body of waters, varying in its constitution and quality in local portions of the globe, and formulating elementary principles, proximate principles, and compounds—simple particles and aggregate masses, animal and vegetable orders, genera, and species, locally disposed or diffused, and continually diffusing throughout its medium, having no true geometrical form, perpetually varying in its quantities, in the disposition of its parts, and in its temperature. I now take my leave of it for awhile, and turn to the second page in the Volume of Philosophy.

THE DESERTS—the vast, the magnificent embellishments of the land—the cornucopia where death, triumphant, holds his solitary court, calling grim vengeance on the passer by—the fearful and the terrible—and yet, in Nature, the sublime and beautiful. Here we behold terrestrial earth in its infant, helioid, naked state, gradually or suddenly depending on maturity, on the enormous masses of development, and determine the fountain-heads of production of mineral, organic, and inorganic bodies, matter and motion composing all the forthcoming results. The great deserts of the earth are ocean beds, from whence the

waters have gradually receded, or, otherwise, have been suddenly thrown off by a general or local catastrophe; the former are more particularly distinguished, from the immense deposits of murate of soda covering their surface, or locally or generally diffused through their strata; the latter, from the total absence, or only partial presence, of this material, and other peculiarities of the soil. Some of these deserts abound with asphalt, and other bituminous matters; others, as the Great Desert of Zeharah, have a hard bed of sand, uniting in its matrix vast accumulations of fossil bodies, and its surface covered with petrifications and calcareous matters, over which the sands shift from place to place, in a similar manner as within the waters, being governed in their direction and disposition by the winds and local obstructions; the Lybian, Arabian, and Mesopotamian deserts, are a succession of hills and chains of hills of calcareous matter—of ponderable rocks—of beds of shell fish—of plains covered with the petrified bodies, and remains of bodies, of oceanic animals—of sands, being the commingled particles of those bodies—of salt, in aggregate masses, or otherwise efflorescing over the surface—the whole material beneath the sand, and for some hundred feet below the surface, being the commingled wreck of oceanic orders and genera, or locally disposed in groups and families.

In almost every stratum of the great deserts of the earth, the fossil skeletons of myriads upon myriads of creatures of the deep, wholly, or partly, compose the strata termed earth, the same having preserved their entirety, or enough to identify them through a long succession of ages, and, speaking by their disposition and quantities, of ages previously existing, being the unerring evidences of the slow and progressive operations of Nature, and explaining, clearly and explicitly, the causes of effects manifest to observation. In some places are beds of pearl oysters, and groups of zoophytes, manifesting the slow progress of generation in warm and tranquil seas—hills of cirrhipeds, consolidated or decomposed—calcareous masses, composed of polypæ, sponges, marine plants, and the relics of numerous species—echinities, crustaceans, and other calcareous animals—plants, and atomic particles—all now united in close relationship as one whole, and awaiting other influences to make the union more complete. In some of the valleys every fossil is covered with a delicate bloom of sulphate of magnesia—in others, the murate of soda, in large pure crystals, gives the earth a lustre almost too dazzling to behold—or, otherwise, the smaller particles rival the snow in purity and whiteness; here the rock is formed—there it is in the act of forming—here the aggregate mass is assuming a stratified appearance—in another place it is decomposing in all its parts, crumbling to pieces, and filling up the valleys. In the midst of scenes like these, of nakedness and desolation, not a solitary spark of life appears to relieve the eye from the sad monotony around; but the heart of the traveller quails within him as he wanders through trackless paths, inhales the burning poisonous blast, and stoops to the earth the wretched victim of ungovernable thirst.

In these deserts where the rains are infrequent, being in some parts rarely, if ever, known, the vegetation consists of miserable scrubwood, sparingly distributed in localities, with here and there a solitary acacia standing, as a landmark to the wandering Arab; of animals there are none, not even a fly or gnat. The soil teems with poisonous gases and bitter salts, inimical to the development of life, and the arid burning atmosphere is equally inimical to its support and propagation. Such are the characteristics of all the Arabian, Lybian, and Persian deserts, seated within the broad belt of the torrid zone, and extending into more temperate climates; and such are the characteristics of the numerous islands in the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, the Indian, Pacific, and Great Southern Oceans, where the crests of the reefs become elevated above the waters, and, so long as the moisture requisite for the production of organic bodies is withheld, the barren lands continuing such from age to age. In this state Nature sometimes slumbers for ages in her work of organic production, but in the fossil and mineral kingdoms her potent powers are daily and hourly manifest, in the transition of organic matter into inorganic; thus, the cast-off clothing of molluscous animals changes as acted upon by the local influences by which it is surrounded, decomposing, consolidating, aggregating, or dispersing, as the accidents of circumstance may determine; the sulphates, phosphates, nitrates, and murates, appear in their varieties; salt is formed in the basins, gradually abstracted from the waters, or in hill masses, consolidating as rock, and the earth uniting with the acids form numerous compounds.

It is not my intention to confound my views in a small portion of the earth; the virgin soils, or deserts, embrace the larger half of the surface of the earth, comprising three-fourths of Africa, of Arabia, Syria, Palestine, Persian Konistan, vast tracts in America, India, China, Australia, and groups of islands formed, or forming, in the several seas and oceans where the causes of effects are most manifest—the whole of these vast surfaces presenting to observation the like phenomena, interminable plains of sand, bare gravel, and calcareous matter—extensive beds of shell fish, oceanic marls, plains covered with salt, nitre, and phosphate of magnesia, scapolite, jasper, and other bodies exclusively oceanic, or proceeding from the union of oceanic bodies and compounds; all appear to be what they truly are, beds of sand, some gradually elevated above the waters, others as gradually appearing as the waters decrease, others produced by the evaporation of the waters therefrom. Their sands are the ocean sands—their rocks are composed, or composed, from, and by, oceanic organic bodies, being chiefly carbonate and sulphate of lime, jasper, porphyry, and sandstone, and their stones and pebbles are petrifications progressively advancing towards the mineral state. Some of the deserts, as those of Persia and Ava, abound with vast accumulations of animal bitumen, the very rocks being saturated *per se* with mineralised animal oil; some of these deserts are characterised by their abundance of salt; the great deserts of Zeharah, the deserts of Lybia, Persia, Mesopotamia, and Syria, are characterised by their vast accumulations of loose shifting sands; all of them have their local phenomena of production of mineral bodies, the strata of all are impregnated with sulphuric acid, bitter salts, bitumen, and other compounds, peculiar to their oceanic formation.

In vain to this grand and universal wreck of oceanic organic bodies will the geologist look for the material of the older soils of Europe, for beds of coal, of iron, of copper, of tin, of silver, of lead, for its trap, or basaltic, and other strata filled with terrestrial organic remains; the whole planet, and the lower chains of hills, consist almost exclusively of oceanic matter, the organic bodies, and commingled particles of bodies, becoming one, and not identified as the fossil and mineral kingdoms—its mountains furnishing proofs of other climates and of other influences—the ocean and valleys through which the rivers flow, or the fresh waters percolate, furnishing proofs of the causes necessary to effect the and proposed by Nature, as terrestrial vegetable life. From local causes the local effects are produced; the dry and sandy deserts, inimical to life in every form, continue bare and desolate from age to age, and preserve, from decomposition and change, the beds of shell fish, and other marine products, which are thus, as it were, hermetically sealed from atmospheric influence. The plains and valleys free from sands exhibit the successive series of changes which bodies and aggregates undergo, when exposed to atmospheric influence; the whole bed of calcareous matter alongside with sulphuric acid—the surface of the earth is coated with salt—and some of the hills are almost wholly composed of this material, and abundance of neutral salts are everywhere manifest.

In this virgin state of the earth the metalloids only are manifest, if we except carbonates, sulphates, and phosphates of iron; alluvial, diluvial, or anti-diluvial soils are equally unknown, the vegetable action being confined to the boundaries of action of the waters. In the place of coal, the deserts of Persia and Ava possess vast accumulations of asphalt and bitumen; instead of terrestrial clay, here is an enormous greyish marl, sometimes 300 feet in thickness, variable in its qualities, but uniting, in its kind, fossil forms inseparable; instead of gems and gold, all sedimented Nature appears to be converted, or converted, into stone. It is true that gold is found in abundance in some of these parts of Africa denominated the Desert, but, wherever gold is found, three terrestrial matters, and the waters, abound, for the one and the other, together with intensity of atmospheric action, are equally necessary to produce gold, and, where found in older latitudes of the earth, it is so manifest a proof of change of position of the earth as are the numerous localities of organic bodies preserved through the layers of time and the commingled of change. Copper, iron, and other metalloids, abound in the mountains, but the mountains, also, are existing evidences of change, and differ widely, in composition, from the hills, plains, and valleys, which comprise the deserts. Now, although, in the arid lands of the deserts, metalloids are not unknown, the elements of which most of them are composed may even, in this state, be in the soil, requiring, probably, only local influences to call them into being.

The prominent features of the young soil in its early development are silicious aggregates, as sands, magnesia, soda, lime, and the sulphates, phosphates, carbonates, nitrates, and murates. In all, and through all, there is a manifest confusion—Nature is, as it were, struggling for re-constituted life. The first mineral aggregates produced from this commingled material is CHLORIDE OF SODIUM, efflorescent and crystalline, spreading over the surface of the soil, and foliated, or compact, as gradually formed in the lower calcareous mass; sometimes almost pure, at other times blending in its body carbonate of lime, and a variety of substances. The next, and most important compound simultaneously produced with salt is gypsum, or selenite, otherwise termed sulphate of lime. On the Arabian coast of the Red Sea there are vast accumulations of oceanic matter, consisting generally of both animal and vegetable remains, but now entirely removed from the action of the waters; the components of the masses are generally the sulphuric and carbonic acids, passing through the whole, as developed by the intense heat of the sun, and uniting with lime, soda, magnesia, and other earths. The sulphuric acid, in passing through the mass, unites with the lime, and the result is sulphate of lime, as ANHYDRITE. Again, when hydrogen is received in the uniting mass, the triple compound gypsum, or selenite, is the result. Again, the sulphuric acid, passing through the aggregate masses, it falls upon the atomic particles of those masses, in union with oxygen, a chemical action ensues, simultaneously manifest, in each atomic particle, the acid acts as the common basis of the whole, and ultimately unites the whole as a crystalline body or rock, being rock gypsum in its varieties. In this general union, the ultimate result depends, not only on local temperature and local secretion, but also on the degree of action and lateral pressure influencing the changing body. Thus the force of resistance opposed to the free expansion of the molecules of matter, prescribes the limits of extent of each crystalline aggregate; the resistance of the bodies in contact overcoming the energy of action, the several particles being in this manner forced into union, and thus consolidated as rock.

SULPHATE OF LIME, or GYPSUM, as is well known, is very extensively disseminated through the upper strata of the earth, under a variety of forms and combinations, and is almost invariably in close proximity to salt beds. Such is the case in this its primary development, the presence of salt being essential to its composition and character. Sometimes it is developed in extensive beds of sand, aggregating with lime and other oceanic matters, the SPARRY GYPSUM being free in its development, shooting forth above the sands in vast quantities, being too bright and dazzling to gaze upon during the day. In some of the beds it forms strata of a foliated texture, and much resembling ice in appearance. Sometimes, the animal bed, composed of a particular species of shell-bearing animals, in the first place decomposes, and, receiving within its composition carbonic acid, the first result is chalk; in after changes, the sulphuric acid, falling upon the mass, displaces the carbonic acid, and the result is gypsum. The stony points of some of the calcareous rocks are generally the first to become converted into sulphate of lime.

Such is the primary material, and such are the combinations and causes of the effects produced under the head of sulphate of lime. Sulphuric gas is most extensively developed in the decomposition of oceanic bodies deriving its origin therefrom, freely disseminated in and throughout the virgin soil; it attaches itself, or is attached, through the medium of other compounds, to lime, and other earths, and passing thence by transition into numberless bodies, in many of which its characteristics are forever lost.

The earths of soda, or sodium, magnesia, or magnesium, are also extensively developed in the chemical combinations which naturally take place in these localities of the desert, on the first appearance of the oceanic matter above the waters, uniting or disseminating with, the acids, and gradually consolidating, as will be explained hereafter. The cause of action manifest on the older strata have not ceased, for in every stage of production, the material, and the like action manifest, must of necessity produce the like results. In those extensive portions of the earth, spreading over some thousand square miles, many of the phenomena of older strata are not yet manifest, and, on the other hand, the infant productions are many of those peculiar to the soil and the climate; gypsum can be formed in vast aggregates only by peculiar local action, manifest in local accretion—thus the phenomena is local, and not general; volcanic action would decompose this and limestone rocks, by abstracting the sulphuric acid of the one, and the carbonic acid of the other. Volcanoes are the ministers of destruction more than the agents of production, obliterating the works of Nature, and introducing confusion where order was most manifest; by their action within the earth, they separate rocks the most ponderable, transferring their atomic particles, commingled with the wreck of innumerable bodies, from the interior to the surface of the earth, there to undergo new changes and vicissitudes of change.

The changes manifest in desert soils, where, undisturbed by storms and other terrestrial products, are such as characterize oceanic matter; thus, for instance, the oxygen of the atmosphere falling upon lime and water, the noble OPAL is produced; but when the terrestrial product, alumine, is united with the above, with iron as common to both, the result is WHITE OPAL; the alumine omitted in this admixture, the result is YELLOW OPAL. Again, in the union of the carbonates of lime, magnesia and iron, in definite proportions of each, prismatic magnesian spar is produced. Magnesia, in union with carbon, forms dolomite, but, in order to produce the result, constant and intense atmospheric heat is requisite, with little moisture. Soda, united by sulphuric acid, which forms the common basis of the atomic particles, the result is sulphate of soda; with carbonic acid, it becomes sodium, crystallised, fibrous, or massive, leaving or efflorescent, as local action and union may determine; which lime and alumine constitutes a portion of the material, the result is variously manifest, as natronite, rebeccite, &c.

GEOLOGY.—A NEW SYSTEM OF PHILOSOPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—I observe that you have, of late, opened the columns of your Journal, pretty widely, to some idle and ill-written speculations, regarding the origin, formation, and constitution, of the earth, which the writers choose to dignify with the title of Geology; among the rest, in the lucubrations of a Mr. Montague, entitled "Geology—A New System of Philosophy," with a combination of which, also, your readers are threatened. But, if what is to come be no better specimen than what this gentleman has thought proper to afford us of his philosophical assumptions and propositions, you might as well spare your readers the infliction of his income producing ravages. As, for example—"Nature is truth!"—The records of the past are in the hills, the mountains, the valleys, the plains—all are relics of past generations, decomposed, decomposing, or entirely—all speak one universal language, easily understood by all men—all attest the forming effects of local influences." &c., &c. If Nature be truth, this is not a true representation of Nature. If all speak a language, easily understood, this writer himself seems to give proof that it may be much easier to speak than to write, intelligibly. Again—"Nature, in her changes, acts by innate causes, and not by certain unerring prearranged rules—matter and motion, at all times, determine the result."—It is impossible to presume that Nature is guided in the result by design manifest. And he writes about the operation of what he calls "common causes" effecting great things, "the leverage of science." &c., &c., as if his writing were not manifestly enough without the use of words unaccompanied by an English dictionary, or by common sense. Furthermore—"It is assumed, by modern geologists (I believe modern geologists often assume what they ought rather to prove, and what they cannot prove), that all the causes at present in action were so previous to the appearance of man upon the earth. The causes of effects previously produced are ever varying; as production advances, many primary questions become unasked, or are totally lost, and new questions and compounds are produced. The appearance of man on earth has caused no material alteration in the progressive advancement of production."—The relation of man to this planetary body is the cause as that of animals, "considering with some of the commonest kind of Materialism. In a world of animals, animals, and practical utility, on your Journal's premises to be, each person should have no place, and surely the interests of it cannot possibly be promoted by such inconsistency, if you did, and editorial truth, on the paper from which I have been now speaking.

February 3.

M. WILSON.

(It will be seen, by a Notice to Correspondents, that we have solicited Mr. Wilson's letter to Mr. Montague—a notice which we propose adopting on all occasions where letters are sent on the pages of that gentleman, and in course of publication through the medium of our columns. The following

It is the misfortune necessarily attached to all writers on natural or moral philosophy, to assume that which they cannot prove, and to demonstrate truths, to embrace which is beyond the compass of ordinary minds :

BRAZILIAN COMPANY.—The directors having resolved to make a CALL OF FIVE DOLLINGS per share on the Conceição shares, the holders are requested to pay the same at the office of the company, on Thursday, Friday, or Saturday, the 1st, 2th, and 5th of March, between the hours of Eleven and Three o'clock. They are requested to leave their names and the amount of their shares on the books of the company, at the office of the directors, on the 1st of March. All shares on which the call may not be paid are liable to forfeiture. A report from the directors may be had at the office of the company, 5, Broad street buildings.—February 19.

1. For a **WORKING MODEL** of the most improved **LOCOMOTIVE-ENGINE**, by steam or other power—a **Gold Medal**.

- In the distribution of these Medals, it is not intended to exclude inventions that are (a) those patented. The Medals to remain for Exhibition in the Institution for at least the space of one year after the Medals have been awarded, should the directors think proper to retain them. The Medals will not be awarded if the Inventions and Medals are not considered to be improvements on machinery now made. The Medals to be forwarded to the Institution on or before the 31st of May next.
- January, 1862. R. J. LONGBOTTOM, Secretary.

SOCIETY.	PLACE OF MEETING.	DAY.	HOUE.
Natural Asiatic	14, Grafton-street	Saturday	2 P.M.
Naturalist	4, St. Martin's place	Monday	8 P.M.
Statistical	Bank court, Fleet-street	Monday	8 P.M.
Natural Medical and Chir- urgical Engineers	43, Berners-street	Tuesday	8½ P.M.
.....	22, Great George-street	Tuesday	8 P.M.
Entomological	50, Pall-mall	Tuesday	8½ P.M.
Society of Arts	Admiralty	Wednesday	7½ P.M.
Geographical	Greenwich House	Wednesday	8 P.M.
Natural Botanical	80, Buckle-street	Wednesday	8 P.M.
Natural	Somerset House	Thursday	8½ P.M.
Antiquarian	Somerset House	Thursday	8 P.M.
El Society of Literature	St. Martin's place	Thursday	4 P.M.
Naturalistic Society	Somerset House	Thursday	7 P.M.
Natural Institution	Albemarle-street	Friday	8½ P.M.
Natural Botanical	Regent's park	Saturday	4 P.M.
Westminster Medical	Exeter Hall	Saturday	8 P.M.
Mathematical	Clyde-street, Spitalfields	Saturday	8 P.M.

*₂ The services of the President of the Geological Society (B. J. Murchison, Esq.) are announced to commence at his residence in Holgrave square, on Saturday, the 20th inst.

	MARTIN, street		
General Steam Navigation Co.	88, Lombard street	Feb.	27
St. Marylebone Joint Stock Bank	Door and Castle Hotel, Oxford-st.		27
Hunters Chocolate Railway	Station, Rotherhithe		30
Liverpool Banking Company	Chancery House, Liverpool		22
Thames Haven Dock and Railway	5, St. Mildred's-court		28
Ayrton Life Assurance Company	79, Cornhill		28
British Shipping Company	George and Vulture Towers		24
Great Western Railway Co.	Victoria's street		24
W. Wards and Imp. and Coal Co.	27, Old Broad street		24
Gravelly County Coal Company	Box Lane, Darnley		24
Captain Mining Company	27, Abchurch-lane		24
Birmingham & Liverpool Joint Can.	British Hotel, Cockspur street		24
Northampton Dock Company	15, Bishopsgate street within		24
Hayle Railway Company	Becky House, London wall		24
Hull and Selby Railway	Town hall, Kingston upon Hull		24
North Midland Railway	London Station		24
London and Lancashire Railway	Victoria street		24
London and Black wall Railway	London Tavern		24
London Grand Junction Railway	5, Beating-hall street		24
Arizona Iron and Coal Co.	Gilbey, 8, Liverpool street	March	1
Thames Tunnel	London Tavern		1
West Coast Mining Company	George and Vulture Towers		1
London and Westminster Bank	Bank, Lombury		1
Birmingham County Mining Co.	Victoria, 8, Paternoster square		2
London & Collier Mining Co.	George and Vulture Towers		2
London and Eastern Railway	Victoria		2
Imperial Brazilian Mining Ass'n.	London Tavern		2
Rock Life Assurance Company	New London Hotel, Bridge street		2

	CASH.	
North Consolidated Mining Co.	7c. 6d. Feb.	21. Williams and Co.
Parkinson Tin and Copper Cos.	10c. per sh.	22. Bousquet and Co.
St. Francisville Mining Co.	10c. March	23. J. Birchall lease
Sullivan C. Sullivan Co.	10c. do.	24. J. Birchall holdings.
Tennessee Copper Mining Co.	10c. do.	25. J. Birchall lease.
West Virginia Mining Company	10c. do.	26. S. H. Mitchell's court.
Western Coal Mining Company	10c. do.	27. Wm. Smith Joint Stock Bank.
Wheatfield Lead Ind. Society	10c. do.	28. At current call.
Whitcomb Iron & Steel Co.	10c. do.	29. At current call.

Period	Transactions			By balance			Period	Transactions			By balance		
	Dr	Cr	bal	Dr	Cr	bal		Dr	Cr	bal	Dr	Cr	bal
Period 1	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 2	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 2	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 3	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 3	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 4	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 4	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 5	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 5	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 6	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 6	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 7	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 7	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 8	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 8	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 9	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 9	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 10	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 10	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 11	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 11	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 12	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 12	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 13	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 13	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 14	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 14	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 15	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 15	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 16	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 16	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 17	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 17	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 18	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 18	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 19	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 19	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 20	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 20	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 21	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 21	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 22	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 22	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 23	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 23	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 24	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 24	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 25	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 25	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 26	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 26	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 27	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 27	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 28	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 28	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 29	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 29	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 30	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 30	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 31	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 31	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 32	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 32	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 33	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 33	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 34	10	10	0	10	0	0
Period 34	10	10	0	10	0	0	Period 35	10					

On the 14th, morning foggy, afternoon clear, evening clear; the 15th, some clouds, otherwise overcast, rain in the evening; the 16th, morning overcast, afternoon clear, evening cloudy; the 17th, morning foggy, afternoon and evening sunny, some light squalls between two and three p.m.; the 18th and 19th following days generally clear; the 19th, clouds, foggy evening.
Mean barom., 30.1 of an inch.

[illegible]

We regret that we should have received so many complaints of not receiving the Government, published with our last Journal, but the blame, in every instance, must rest entirely with the bookseller, or newsman, through whom the paper is supplied; a copy (which, it may be observed, was not attended with any extra charge) will be forwarded according to the address transmitted.

"G. A." (Wellington street).—We cannot see that any good would result from entering into the arrangement recommended by our correspondent; due attention is paid, in every respect, to all such matters whenever the opportunity is presented, and from sources suitable to the prescribed objects of the Journal, which, be it said, is not of frequent occurrence.

Mr. "F. C." alias "Bob Jackson," was certainly rather premature in even fancying he had cause to feel "disappointed" in our lady insertion of his paper; the great pressure of important correspondence with which we have of late been favoured, and (with problems, come, and with those excellent trials, to which we felt bound to give prominence, is sufficient explanation for the course we adopted; we, however, shall always be happy to hear from him, and to give his favours the earliest possible attention.

²⁰ An Old Subscriber" (Swansea), who writes concerning certain "doings," seems so well informed on the subject as not to require any additional information from us, and we really do not think that the publication of his letter would afford any interest or gratification to our readers.

We have adopted that course with the letter of Mr. Wilson (inserted in another column), which we intend pursuing with all subsequent communications having reference to the papers now in course of publication through our columns, by Mr. Montague, of forwarding them to that gentleman, so that he may attach his comments thereon. We now repeat, what we have before stated, that we do not hold ourselves responsible for the opinions or assertions contained in those papers, which, we most distinctly wish to be understood, must alone rest with the author.

We have received a second paper from Mr. Hood, on the subject of the Combustion of Coal, which will be inserted in our next.

LECTURES ON CIVIL ENGINEERING.—Our report of Professor Vignoles's lecture delivered on Wednesday, the 10th inst., is necessarily postponed.

Erratum.—In Mr. Phillips's explanation of the manner of admitting water or steam on the engine for raising miners, inserted in our last, the word *disk*, which occurred once or twice, should have been *disk*.

Revised—⁶⁰ N. V.⁶¹ (Holywell)—⁶² R. J.⁶³ (Birmingham)—⁶⁴ A Constant Reader.

LONDON, FEBRUARY 19, 1842.

The Anniversary Meeting of the Geological Society was held yesterday, when the Address on the presentation of the WOLLASTON Medal, and review of the proceedings of the past year, was delivered by its talented president (R. I. Murchison, Esq.), in the course of which he passed a well-merited eulogium on the labours of those in the scientific field of research, to which the attention of geologists had been directed, as well as to the merits of those members of the society who had, during the past twelve months, been removed from this busy scene to "that bourne from whence no traveller returns." The anniversary dinner took place in the evening, when addresses were delivered by the first president (Mr. GREENOUGH) and the present, as well as the Russian Ambassador, Dr. BUCKLAND, the Marquis of LANSDOWNE, Duke of RICHMOND, and other influential members. We will endeavour next week to give a detailed account of the proceedings, with an abstract of the President's Address.

Parliament has met. The Corn Law question has been canvassed, and, although the session is too young to expect results to have arisen from the midnight meetings of the legislative assembly, yet we are glad to find that the sulphur mines of this country have not been neglected, even at this early period.—Dr. BOWRING having moved for certain papers bearing on the negotiation and final settlement with the Neapolitan Government, as regards the breach of faith on their part, and the consequent injustice done to our mercantile and shipping interest. Whatever may be the ulterior object the honourable member may have in view, it is sufficient for us to observe, that the attention of Parliament is directed to the subject, which, once excited, must (at least, so we should hope and expect) lead to such commercial treaties, and understanding between the two countries, as will be protective to our mining interests at home, while they are based on principles of reciprocal advantage and fairness.

This question becomes one of increasing importance, as relates to the import of foreign sulphur without a protecting duty, when we find that a sale has been effected, within the past fortnight, at the rate of 65s. per ton, in Liverpool, whereas the current price for a lengthened period ranged between 10*l*. and 12*l*. per ton. As the sale to which we refer has had an influence on several parties connected with the sulphur districts (but which appears to us to be based on ungrounded data), we have taken some pains to elicit, from the best authorities, the relative positions of the sulphur mines of Sicily and those of our own country, and also gladly avail ourselves of the observations of a gentleman immediately connected with the sulphur trade, who has seen the ore lately imported from Smyrna, and on whose judgment we can fairly depend.

In the first place, then, it appears that 140 tons of sulphur ore were brought over to this country, and, after attempts at private sale having been made, was offered by public auction, in Liverpool, within the past ten days, when, there being no disposition on the part of the manufacturers to bid, the parcel was withdrawn at 3*l.* 10*s.* per ton. We are, however, informed, that, subsequent to the attempt at public sale, forty tons were disposed of at 3*l.* 5*s.*, or, as another informant says, 3*l.* 8*s.* per ton—the lowness of the price being attributable to the desire on the part of the importers to get the article introduced, and next its inferiority as to produce, yielding not more than 60 per cent., and being too freely mixed with the *gangue* or rock and earthy matter. That the ore could be raised, and transported to this country, at 3*l.* 5*s.* per ton, is too absurd for a moment to reflect upon, and, with the view of comparing the value and cost of our own produce with that of Sicily, for we leave the imports from Smyrna out of the question), we will take facts and figures as our basis, and leave to our readers to form their own deductions.

It is now some months since that His VOLCANIC MAJESTY was compelled, surely against his will, to annul the compact entered into by him with TAIK and Co., whereby a heavy stock of sulphur was thrown on his hands. His MAJESTY had been previously in receipt of, or, at least, had, the *quid pro quo*, to the extent of 41. 10s. per ton; but having been obliged to return to honest dealing, and wanting money, he entered into arrangements with a house to whom he sold the stock of some tens of thousands of tons at a price 50 per cent. less than that which the article had commanded during the term of the illegal contract. The consequence, as might naturally be expected, was the decline in price of from 11s. to 13d. per ton to 6d., and the market being deluged with Sicilian sulphur. The high price to which sulphur had been raised by this underhand agreement between His SICILIAN MAJESTY and TAIK and Co., led to the exploration of mines in this country, which were known to abound with pyrites, and, accordingly, it having been found that they could be rendered at a price comparatively less than foreign sulphur, operations on an extended scale were undertaken, the result of which is, that at the present moment the country of Wicklow, in Ireland, can produce 80,000 tons per annum, averaging 40 per cent., or equal to 32,000 tons of Sicilian sulphur, which is nearly the quantity annually imported, within the past few years, into this country. Thus, we may observe, is independent of the resources of Cornwall, Wales, and other parts of Ireland, where sulphur ores, or pyrites, are found in abundance, although not so advantageously situated for transport, or obtained so readily, the lakes, in the county Wicklow, in some cases, bring thirty shillings a ton, and worked at a cost not exceeding 1s. 6d. per ton.

We may here remark, that the old stock of Sicilian sulphur is diminishing considerably, while prices are looking up, and the shipments very scanty. Of the 2000 tons of Sicilian sulphur in stock at Liverpool, some two or three weeks back, 1250 tons have been sold within the past fortnight, and the price has advanced, as will be seen by the quotations, despite the *influx* of Smyrna ore, to the vast extent of 140 tons, of which nearly one-third has been sold, so as to realise one-half the price of Sicilian sulphur, and rather more than double that of Wicklow ores—a happy medium, which will, doubtless, allow them sufficient to cover land carriage, freight, and agency, and leave the adventurers to pay the cost of raising. As evidence of the state of the sulphur trade, as regards the supplies from Sicily, we may further observe, that the total imports to Liverpool, from 31st December to 15th inst., amounted to only 356 tons—the quantity we formerly imported may be taken at 36,000 tons per annum, or 3000 tons per month, whereas the imports during the present year is at the rate of 240 tons per month, or one-twelfth. This should in itself be encouraging to our home miners, although prices, for the moment, be depressed.

With the view of enabling our readers to arrive at a correct conclusion of the advantages which our home mines possess, in comparison with those of His VOLCANIC MAJESTY, and, as an inducement to parties interested to progress rather than to relax (to which latter course the present depressed prices might lead them) we propose submitting the cost at which, we believe, the article of home or foreign produce may be rendered. We will first take the foreign, or Sicilian sulphur, and which, as we have already observed, after reaching the maximum price of 14*l.* per ton, has been suddenly lowered to 6*l.* per ton—the cause of which depreciation has been already shown. (It is for us, then, to inquire, whether the low price we have quoted (although there has been, of late, a slight reaction) is likely to continue, as on that question hinges the prosperity of the sulphur mines of this country. The following, we understand, to be the charges attendant on the import of Sicilian sulphur :—

Cost of raising, dressing, and land carriage (twenty-one miles).....	£4	0	0
Export duty	1	15	0
Freight	1	15	0
Import duty	0	10	0
Commission, shipping, and landing charges—5 per cent.....	0	8	0

Thus, it would appear, if our data be correct, that the cost of Sicilian sulphur, in Liverpool, so as to be remunerative to the miner, after paying export and import duty, freight, cost of transport, and other charges, is 8*l.* 8*s.* per ton, while the market price is 6*l.* 5*s.* to 6*l.* 15*s.* Let us now turn to our home mines. The present price of Wicklow sulphur ore, delivered at Liverpool, is 25*s.* per ton, 3 tons to 3½ tons of which we will assume as being equal to one ton of Sicilian sulphur; this would give to the manufacturer the article, in its rough state, at 4*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* per ton, but calculating on advanced prices (for the present will not cover the cost), we may take the following estimate:—

One ton of sulphur ore at the mine, including all charges	£0 18 0
Lead carriage to Wicklow	0 4 6
Freight	0 3 0
Shipping charges, commission, dues, &c.	0 3 6

Cost per ton, delivered at Liverpool £1 10 0

Assuming that only 25 to 30 per cent. be extracted from the ore, we should, in this case, be able to render to the manufacturer an equivalent to Sicilian sulphur at 5*l.* 5*s.* per ton. We must not, however, lose sight of the possibility of the export duty on the part of the Neapolitan Government being entirely removed, in which case the rate at which the article could be imported would be 6*l.* 13*s.* per ton, which leaves the margin less wide, and should stimulate those interested in our home mines to press on Government the consideration of a protective duty, more especially when we reflect that the impost of 4*l.* 10*s.* per ton was continued by His VOLCANIC MAJESTY until compulsory measures were resorted to on the part of our Government, whereby the manufacturer and consumer were relieved. The question, once brought fairly under notice, cannot fail of receiving attention.

Whilst the gold mines of Brazil and Spanish America appear to be yearly lifting off in their yield, those of Siberia, on the contrary, are yearly producing more. Nature (says a Russian report) has showered gold in abundance on the soil of Siberia. The eastern part of that vast country is remarkable at this time for its riches in the precious metals. The sands of the rivers there show the presence of gold in their beds from the surface, in many places for many tracts of square versts, as for example in the river Grand Biouss, on the borders of the governments of Yeniseisk and Irkutsk, and in the basins of the Tunguska superior, of the Oudirel and the Pit, which water the first of those governments. From the savage country it used to be, Siberia has become the realm of gold; its riches may now be accounted such, although the road to them has been paved with silver, it may be said, and made good by persevering industry.

The exploitations of the gold mines have been chiefly extended by private adventurers from the example of those worked by the Crown. Excepting the districts belonging to the imperial mines of Kolyvansko-Vostokrensk and Verkhinsk, or the country situated beyond the Baikal, the adventures of gold mining, and the search for veins of gold, in all the rest of Siberia, have been surrendered to private enterprise on certain conditions. For a long time the speculators searched fruitlessly in the deserts of that vast country, and lost their capitals and their health; but at length Nature yielded to the perseverance of man, gold was discovered, and its working commenced in 1929. From this date it is curious to observe the rapid development of private (above) gold mining in Siberia, according to the following official statement:

	Pounds.	Livres.	Reichs.
1610	1	1	11 48-94
1611	1	1	39
1612	1	1	73 1/2
1613	16	17	40 73-00
1614	30	30	81 93-00
1615	31	31	88 88-00
1616	73	73	18 12-00
1617	84	84	7 18-00
1618	106	106	17 58-00
1619	139	139	80 00-00
1620	181	181	55 14-00
1621	211	211	40 00-00

Total of the 12 years 912 1 12 79.06

Upon this quantity the Crown has received, by way of quill rent, 137 pounds of gold, and the remaining 775 pounds remained the property of the speculator. The pound, it is useful to observe again, is equal to rather more than 26 lbs. British avoirdupois weight.

Thus in ten years the production has increased from 1 to 212 pounds per man, from private enterprises alone. But, in fact, the year of gold mining consists of the four months of summer only, during which the washings of the gold sands and the extraction of gold takes place in Liberia, and particularly in its eastern parts; and it is proper to notice that all the workings are conducted by people of an experience in that branch of industry, in a country altogether unknown, covered with thick forests, impracticable rivers and mountains, where no trace of the passage of man could be found, and where savage hunters had scarcely ever set foot.

The year 1941 will, however, it is said, furnish a more profitable proof of the immense mineral wealth of Siberia. Private enterprise will have extracted from it nearly 100 pounds of gold more than in 1940. In this amount will be included for nearly 35 pounds from the deposits discovered last year by the trader Missouloff, the working of which has not employed more than 10 laborers. "What other industry (says the report) can, with less outlay, produce in the space of four months only, to the amount of 30,000 value of a substance which is of never very varying demand and value?" The silver problem, it may be added, is equal to about 10,000 sterling. At present the adventurers confine their enterprises to the gold to be found among the sands of the rivers, and so long as they are successful they are likely to carry their resources no further. But the question arises, and the answer will come time or other be sought, from whence do these golden sands derive? When the river workings, which may suffice for the present use, fail, it is probable that more extensive researches will trace the mineral treasures of Siberia to their source.

ORIGINAL CORRESPONDENCE.

SPELTER MANUFACTURE—BLACK-JACK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—I must confess I was much disappointed in reading "H. E.'s" letter, promised by you some weeks since, to be a regular "illuminator" of the subject, in your paper, headed "Spelter Manufacture—Black-Jack." From former reminiscences, I was not surprised at its prolixity, but was so from its lack of applicable matter. The total of his effusion amounts to this—"I am an advocate for benefitting the black-jack miner, by extending the make of English spelter," but, "as an increased make would lower the price, and as it can be made abroad for 18s. (formerly he stated 14s., which is nearer the mark), and the present prices must come down this year, don't attempt it, but wait for an improved plan I have in view, to make it cheap and good, and, probably, rollable," in which case all these butts would be thrown overboard, by his philanthropy for the poor black-jack miner.

We all know assertions are no proofs; but, of the former, "H. E." is most unanswering—time will develop all, and, as I said before, we have waited since 1839, and can still wait the "proof" as to this new—being an improved—plan, as to cheapness, quality, and ductility. Some of "H. E.'s" assertions I regret, because they are personally injurious, and ill-founded; and, however they may tell to ground an argument on, ought not to have been advanced—first, that the rise was caused by speculators; and, next, that, although "one or two houses" had secured the make for the next six months, to uphold the price, yet that not only it could not be maintained, but that—22s. to 26s. being a "fair" price—it would recede to that "before the close of the current year." I could easily disprove all this as incorrect and unlikely, but, as I am not writing for or against a market price, I shall abstain from saying more, than that a body of well-informed mercantile men do not generally, and simultaneously, act on false data; these data did exist, and will continue, until more spelter, that will roll, is produced than we have had, or can get, from abroad. When these causes cease, and stocks exist beyond consumption, the natural result must be a fall in price—meantime, the common forethought for rise or fall of mercantile men, should not bring them within the charge of being mere speculators, and their motives be injuriously and publicly impugned.

I come now to some of "H. E.'s" facts. I cannot understand the necessity urged of a "reduced" make; the exemplification of the iron trade reduction of make is totally inapposite and uncalled for. The demand for home consumption, "H. E." says, is 5000 to 6000 tons annually—the make in England being about 1000 tons; surely, here is margin enough for extension, with 2s. protecting duty, if it can be made cheap enough, and of the required quality, but, assuming even that the brass of this country requires only 1500 tons spelter, there is still a margin for 500 tons more—at the minimum, of course—without even reference to Muntz's yellow metal, the patent for which, I understand, "specifies" to be made from "foreign" spelter, and without taking into consideration the brass wants of all other countries. The argument, that because spelter can be made for 18s. to 20s., it "must" be sold at a "fair" price of 22s. to 26s., is not a tenable mercantile position; every one gets as much as the state of the demand will justify when the make is short; the leading feature at present is the price of the foreign production, nor will the English maker be content unless he gets a corresponding one, and should, from any causes, the prices fall abroad, he must succumb to the same, until an absence of all profit obliges him to cease to make. It is a dangerous competition, at present, between this country not making under 18s., when the foreigners have sold, delivered in bond in this country, as low as 9s. 5s. As regards "possible improvements," I never denied them; I only contended, from the nature of English ores, there was great difficulty, for (unlike "H. E.'s" other examples), to the steel iron now made in this country, you have to add chemical ingredients, with a margin of price from 6s. to 36s., whereas, with blende, you have to get rid of a semi-metal, highly volatile, in a state of connection with a metallic oxide equally volatile—in short, to meet the fluctuations of spelter, and compete with the Germans in case of a fall, you must have cheapness, to extend the make for general brass purposes, and equal ductility, to justify such an extension as would make it an important trade.

As to the "Black-Jack Miner" of the Isle of Man, he is a real "man" of that idle—sticks to his point right or wrong. I am totally uninterested in keeping down the price of blende, and, not denying the large profits the English spelter maker may be now making, and which he has enjoyed about one year in this very precarious trade, I can only advise him not to part with his black-jack for a less price than he can obtain, and wait, if he likes, for the demand which is to be created by the "new improved process." London, Feb. 10. A. B.

[Some remarks on this communication will be found in another column.]

THE "STANDARD."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—I beg leave to apologise to you for being a means of disseminating that palpable error in my last communication of the 15th ult. I cannot account for it in any other way than this—in the hurry of transcribing, having multiplied 92 tons by 54, on a detached scrap of paper, and copying therefrom, must have changed the place of the figures, at the commencement of the working out of the proposition. I thank your correspondent, "E. T.," for calling my attention to it, in your Journal of the 5th instant. It is quite evident, to all who pay the slightest attention to the workings, that they will discover that the figures are misplaced; the 7 is put foremost in the group, instead of 4, and vice versa, and 4 in the middle in place of 7, which evidently caused the blunder in the finding the average produce, and, consequently, missing the right standard. This, however, does not at all militate against the rule laid down in the paper referred to, nor will it derogate from the method there suggested. Your correspondent, "E. T.," justly observes—"notwithstanding this error (noticed above), it does not at all interfere with the principle so clearly elucidated," which was the principal thing I aimed at, in furnishing you with the often solicited direction for making out the standard.

Hewitt Salsy, Feb. 10. SAUL PININN.

ON THE APPLICATION OF ANTHRACITE TO THE MANUFACTURE OF IRON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—The successful application of anthracite to the manufacture of iron is a subject of paramount importance in the mineral district of which this place may be considered the outlet. Manufacturing operations not having as yet commenced, it appears to me to offer an excellent opportunity for the establishment of improved methods of working, such as seldom occur, and which it would be lamentable to see thrown away. As I take a deep interest in the subject, I trust I shall be excused for using the freedom of making a few remarks upon smelting iron, and the application of the blast, because in the latter, where anthracite is used for fuel, I am confident that, as yet, all the advantages to be derived, in a pecuniary point of view, from its use, have been wasted by the expensive mode of application. I am ready to admit the efficacy of the present mode, and the excellence of the iron so smelted, but feel satisfied similar results are to be arrived at with infinitely less original outlay of capital and of current expenditure. I am amused with a letter from Mr. Brough, which appears in the Mining Journal of the 12th instant, wherein he gives a solemn warning to those who embark in this comparatively new enterprise, to have their heat apparatus so powerfully constructed as to force in enough of the atmosphere but air to supply the atomic quantity of oxygen due to this highly carbonaceous and remarkable fuel. In reply to the concluding remarks in the letter, I beg to state that I am quite certain that none of the meteorologically minute which surrounded Mr. Brough can be attributed to a deficiency of power in the blast apparatus made use of, or provided for, in any of the new establishments formed for the manufacture of iron with anthracite. But air is by no means necessary for the perfect combustion of anthracite, but, to a certain extent, it becomes so when used for smelting iron, to prevent the chilling effect of cold air upon the fixing carbon and iron, the peculiar structure of anthracite not affording that protection which coke does. Air may be heated to a much higher temperature, and at much less cost, otherwise than by forcing it through red hot iron pipes, and, provided the requisite quantity can be sent through the furnace in the required time, the pressure, or pillar of blast, is of no consequence whatever. It is once more that I satisfied myself upon this point, and am glad to find Mr. Brough following the same opinion. The readers of the Mining Journal ought to feel themselves under an obligation to that gentleman for his valuable hints on the management of blast furnaces, written in a lucid and clear style, without the too frequent repetition used in such matters. He

states that in his neighbourhood (Nantyglo), from some recent trials, a much lower pillar of blast than 24 lbs. per inch has, with large tuyers, produced very superior work. By reducing the resistance, which the peculiar structure of anthracite opposes to the passage of the blast through the furnace, as large a quantity of air may be driven through by a comparatively small power as is now done with engines of extraordinary capacities. A slight alteration of the furnace will effect this, and, at the same time, the necessity for high furnaces be obviated. T. H. LEIGHTON.

Llanelli, Feb. 15.

ON MINE SURVEYING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—We have a coal-pit, into the workings of which an eruption of water has lately taken place from the upper strata, and which, although not very great, as to quantity, yet, from the nature of the situation, is very troublesome and expensive, leading away with horses, &c., and is likely to continue; I would, therefore, beg the favour of some of your skilful and scientific contributors, to lend me a helping hand in this matter, by directing, from the data following, which is the best and cheapest way to proceed in its removal from the works? The water produced is about 360 gallons per hour, and from the point, or reservoir, where it is collected, near the workings, to the nearest point of discharge (or teaming place), is 1837 links, or 1212 feet, all the way up an inclined plane, whose perpendicular height is forty-five feet. If a pump, or pumps, are advised, I request to know what size is most proper, both for the pipes and the pumps, to be used; and what the necessary working power? And, also, what I may expect as the useful mechanical effect produced, in proportion to the power expended? and these founded on data ascertained by the best known experiments on the friction of water in pipes, and the friction of the best constructed pumps (whether forcing or suction pumps). I beg also to say, that the water being situated nearly half a mile underground, from the bottom of the pit, any idea of attaching the winding-engine to apparatus for its extraction, is, I apprehend, inapplicable. BOB AT A PINCH.

Wingate Grange Colliery, February 8.

ON MINE SURVEYING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—In my attempt to solve "A Miner's" question on mine surveying, inserted in your last Journal, in all the distances for feet read fathoms. A CORNISH MINER.

Brea, Feb. 14.

ON THE COMBUSTION OF COAL AND THE USE OF HOT AIR IN FURNACES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—I beg to make some observations on the letters of Mr. Williams "On the Combustion of Coal, and on the Use of Hot Air in Furnaces," which have appeared in your Journal of the 29th ult. and the 5th inst. In the former of these Mr. Williams considers that I have attributed to him the opinion that "the same quantity of air is required to consume the gaseous products of coal at all periods of its combustion"—not from what he has himself said or written on the subject, but from what others have erroneously attributed to him; this, however, is not the case. I founded my opinion upon his own letter, published in your Journal, in which he says—"But I am asked, when is the time, and what are the circumstances under which a regulating air admission valve would be necessary, and when there is no combustible gas requiring such air?" I answer, "there is no such time, and there are no such circumstances; for, in proportion as the carburetted hydrogen is evolved and consumed, the fire becomes clear, and this carbonic oxide gas is generated, demanding, in its turn, the same quantity of oxygen as went to the formation of the carbonic acid gas, from which it is produced, so that the whole of this ingenious absurdity of the cold air actually doing mischief, by alternately expanding and contracting the metal plate of boilers, is shown to be a great chemical and practical blunder." It certainly appeared to me that, by this paragraph, Mr. Williams very decidedly stated his opinion that the same quantity of air was required at all periods of the combustion—an opinion which I have shown in my letter, published in your Journal of the 22d January, to be erroneous. Unless Mr. Williams will explain what he means by the above paragraph, I must confess myself unable to attach any other sense to it than the one I have stated.

I will now proceed to the subject of Mr. Williams's lecture at the Victoria Gallery, to which he refers for an exposition of his views on the injurious use of hot air in furnaces. I must apologise for the length to which my observations will probably extend; but Mr. Williams pointedly alludes to my opinions on this subject, and the present appears to be the proper occasion for stating my objections to what he has advanced on this subject. The courtesy of his expressions towards myself, on that occasion, I desire to reciprocate, while I request his attention to what I would urge against his theory.

I proceed to the several points for consideration, in the same order in which they occur in Mr. Williams's lecture. It is objected that it is not necessary to heat the air before it enters into the furnace to support combustion, because a fire burns better in frosty weather, and a gas light burner receives the air which supports combustion at the common temperature. Mr. Williams is quoted as stating "the colder the air the greater will be its effect on combustion." This is evidently only a small part of some sentence, of which it is necessary to know the remainder before we can judge of the meaning to attach to it. Sir Humphrey Davy's elegant experiments on combustion, show that mixtures of gases, unflammable at common temperatures, when the electric spark is passed through them, inflame more readily in proportion as they are heated more highly; and I have never yet met with any one, except Mr. Williams, who denied the necessity of the air being heated before combustion could ensue. The different colours which the flame of a candle, or lamp, exhibits at the base and at the summit, is caused by the deficiency of heat at the lower part of the flame, in consequence of the current of cold air passing upwards. The non-combustion of a gas-light, until it has passed a certain distance from the holes of the burner, arises from the same cause, and this distance diminishes as the metal of the burner becomes heated. The same occurs in every case of combustion, the air being heated at the expense of the combustible, unless it be heated extrinsically.

The objection urged against the increased bulk of hot air, to obtain the same number of atoms of oxygen, is likewise invalid. If the objection were good, it would have far more importance than even Mr. Williams attaches to it, for the expansion of air by increased heat is much greater than he supposes. Mr. Williams takes the expansion of air to be equal at all temperatures—viz., $\frac{1}{273}$ of its bulk for each degree of Fahrenheit. This rule makes one volume expand into three volumes, by increasing the temperature from 60° to 1020°—equal to an increase of 960°. Air, however, does not expand *portiones*, for equal increments of temperature. The rule for its expansion (Dr. Gregory's *Mechanics*, vol. i., p. 486), supposing it expands $\cdot 376$ by 100° of temperature, is—

$$(1.376)^{\frac{t}{100}} = \frac{V}{V_0} \quad \text{or} \quad (1.376)^{\frac{t}{100}} = \frac{V}{V_0} \quad \text{or} \quad (1.376)^{\frac{t}{100}} = \frac{V}{V_0}$$

in which equation x is the required temperature, and V the volume the air acquires at that temperature. Mr. Davies Gilbert, Mr. Sylvester, and other mathematicians, have likewise given formulae for the calculation, which make the expansion a trifle higher than Dr. Gregory. Now, if we take the value of x at 960°, we shall find that one volume of air becomes 5.49, instead of three, as Mr. Williams states; and, though this apparently makes his argument the more forcible, truth requires it to be stated, and the more so, if the argument really possesses any weight. But, let us see what is the effect of highly rarefied air. Sir Humphrey Davy introduced a small jet of hydrogen gas (Priestley's philosophical candle) into the receiver of an air-pump, and he found the flame enlarged in proportion as he exhausted the air, and it was at its maximum when the air was exhausted to one-fifth of its original density. By increasing the size of the jet, the flame burned longer, even when the air was exhausted to one-tenth, and this he found to arise from the increased heat by the larger burner, the flame only ceasing when the exhaustion was carried so far that the heat was insufficient to keep up the combustion, even in air so highly rarefied. Dr. Ure, with reference to these experiments, observes, that "these combustible bodies which require less heat for their ignition, ought to burn in more rarefied air than those that require more heat, and those which produce much heat in their combustion ought to burn, other circumstances being the same, in more rarefied air than those that produce little heat." But, when Sir H. Davy heated the gaseous mixtures before combustion, he found "that expansion by heat, instead of diminishing the combustibility of gases, on the contrary, enables them to explode apparently at a lower temperature, which seems perfectly reasonable, as a part of the heat communicated by any ignited body must be lost in gradually raising the temperature." Sir H. Davy also ascertained "that the cooling power of mixtures of elastic fluids, in preventing combustion, must increase with their condensation, and diminish with their rarefaction; at the same time, the quantity of matter entering into combustion, in given spaces, is relatively increased and diminished. The experiments on flame, in rarefied atmospheric air, show that the quantity of heat produced in combustion is very slowly diminished by rarefaction, the diminution of the cooling power of the azote being apparently in a higher ratio than the diminution of the heating power of the burning bodies." And he likewise concludes, "that, at high temperatures, gases not concerned in combustion will have less powers of preventing that operation than gases at the common temperature of the atmosphere." Sir Humphrey Davy's "Researches on Flame" (*Philosophical Transactions*, 1817) and Dr. Ure's *Dictionary of Chemistry* (article "Combustion"), afford abundant evidence of the advantages of heated air in all cases of combustion; and I think Mr. Williams would find the perusal of these works would correct several erroneous opinions he entertains on this subject, and that he would no longer consider these views contrary to all chemical authorities. Sir H. Davy, in particular, has stated "that the combustibility of all gaseous mixtures is increased by rarefaction by heat" (*Quarterly Journal of Science*, vol. ii., p. 463); and, in fact, almost endless quotations might be made in favour of this view of the subject. The extract given by Mr. Williams, from Dr. Ure's letter, by no means contradicts this opinion. The expression, "frosty air, on entering your furnaces through the small apertures, undergoes a very sudden and great expansion, which must tend to promote the mixture and diffusion of the air and the gases, by the agitation thereby occasioned," clearly proves that the Doctor considers this expansion (by heat) necessary, before the air mixes with the gases, and that this expansion of the air is caused by the heated materials of the furnace, in "passing through the small apertures." This is precisely the principle of supplying heated air to furnaces, for no one, who is acquainted with the subject, will deny, that frosty air, when thus heated, supports combustion better than air at a summer temperature; because, there is less hygrometric moisture in the former case than the latter, which very materially affects combustion. There is also another reason why frosty weather makes a furnace burn better than warm weather—viz., the influx of air to the furnace is greater, owing to the greater difference in weight between the internal and external columns of air, as explained in my letter in your Journal of the 15th January.

The extracts above given are principally from Sir H. Davy's papers "On Flame," published in the *Philosophical Transactions* of 1817, and which papers are so replete with information on this subject, that their perusal can scarcely fail to convince any person who carefully studies them, that the principle of supplying heated air to furnaces is both practically and theoretically correct. I now come to Mr. Williams's letter, in your Journal of the 5th inst. And here I cannot but remark, that if Mr. Williams felt surprise, as he states, on reading my letter of the 29th ult., my surprise is not less at the tone and manner of his present letter. Up to the time of this letter, Mr. Williams's manner of stating his opinion was sufficiently courteous to be unobjectionable. Nay, he even discovered that his opponent was "one who is familiar with the chemistry of combustion;" "a gentleman who is a more worthy supporter of the hot air principle in preference to others;" and "an acknowledged chemical, and, I believe, practical authority." &c., &c. But in one week "a change came over the scene," and this same individual is metamorphosed into "a rash youth," and "not a scientific man really in search of truth;" an "unworthy quibbler," "one who 'blunders' most egregiously, and exposes his ignorance most pitifully." What an extraordinary change in one short week! Can any cause exist which will explain this change, some one may ask? The cause is a very small one to produce such an effect—a mere spark thrown into the magazine—it only consists in the change of two letters, *meum* for *tuum*. In all my former letters I merely replied to Mr. Williams's observations on my own opinions and writings; in my last letter I stated my opinion of his writings, and it is not a little remarkable, that a gentleman who can write with so much calmness when discussing what he considers, the errors of others, should be so excessively sensitive when his own errors are pointed out, that the *impugnatio des hostes* is scarcely more vituperative and violent than are the expressions in which he states his objections. But let me ask what Mr. Williams has to complain of? In reviewing his work I employed precisely the same style and mode of expression that was used in the review published by Mr. Williams upon my essay. This, then, of course, he cannot object to. The number of errors pointed out was similar in both cases; this, therefore, must be unobjectionable. And the only difference between the two is, that those errors pointed out as belonging to my work, have no existence whatever, as I never stated what was attributed to me; while in my review of Mr. Williams's work I quoted his own words, in order that there might be no mistake. Mr. Williams quotes a letter of Dr. Kane, in which he states, he sees no material difference between the essay and the abstract of my paper. I never stated there was any, except that a short abstract must necessarily be imperfect. But, if Mr. Williams (or Dr. Kane) will point out where those opinions, which he has attributed to me, are to be found in my essay, I shall be perfectly satisfied that his view of it is correct; but until he does that, or until he retracts what he has written of it, he must not be surprised if I, in defending my opinions, find it necessary to show what value his own should bear. I cannot, however, do an injustice to any man; and I, therefore, feel bound to acknowledge (although I have not got Mr. Williams's book at hand to refer to) that the third error I pointed out has been satisfactorily explained by Mr. Williams, and that it is either a typographical error or a misreading. The others I see no reason to alter my opinion of, and I shall, if useful, recur to them, and some others, at a future time. If Mr. Williams wishes to continue the discussion in the same manner as in his last letter I have no objections—*scilicet in modo, fortiter in re*, is my motto—I offer him the olive branch—I shall lose nothing if he rejects it. At the same time, I would suggest to him as a man of the world, and with much opportunity for studying mankind, that it might, perhaps, be more politic in future for him to hide with greater caution his vulnerable point, for when any one has made an error with the opinions of others, as he has done, there are seldom wanting those who will avail themselves of the knowledge thus obtained, to cast the javelin where it is most likely to take effect. *Hareet lateri telatibi arundo.* CHARLES HOOD.

Carl-street, Feb. 9.

ON RAILWAY ENGINEERING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—Since the recommendation of the jury, which sat on the bodies of the unfortunate persons who lost their lives through the accident on the Brighton Railway, near Cuckfield, to discontinue four-wheeled locomotive-engines, enough has been written on the comparative advantages of four and six-wheeled engines to fill a volume; but the question, whether with a perfectly level road, and barring the breaking of axles, either description of engine would not be as safe as the other, has, I believe, been overlooked, or only touched on as of secondary consideration—indeed, one of the most elaborate writers on the subject has admitted, that, with such a road, the matter would be at once deprived of the importance attached to it. Why, then, permit me to ask, have we not such roads? Are we so deficient in practical science as not to be able to make proper roads? or will it be alleged that the powers of man are inadequate to the task? Whatever answer is returned to either of these questions, the subject, be assured, must, sooner or later, force itself on public attention; for "maintenance of way," arising out of the want of proper roads, is a title to an account which ought not to be found in the ledger of any railway company whatever.

When my letter, inserted in your Journal, on the subject of the last accident on the Great Western Railway was written, I had not seen the account in the Times of the fatal accident on the Chesterfield Railway, occasioned by the breaking of a wheel, and which, though happily fifty lives were not thereby sacrificed, was an instructive commentary on the contents of that letter, especially as neither of the publications, essentially devoted to the interests of railway directors, ever made the least mention of the sad occurrence. A writer in one of these periodicals, who has an itching for making discoveries of phenomena and phenomena in railway science, and who has lately returned from a tour of inquiry respecting four and six-wheeled engines, having entertained his readers with some curious reasons why longitudinal waves occasion more danger than cross strains, an investigation of the matter seems somewhat necessary. The writer was informed by a Mr. Goy, an engineer on the Hull and Selby Railway, that "the difference in draught in heat frost and wet weather

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Waters.		Measurements.		Seasons.	
East Dartington, East	April	1878	August	1879	
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East Combe	May	1885	January	1886	
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West Combe	May	1888	June	1889	
East Combe	May	1889	January	1890	
West Combe	May	1890	May	1891	
East Combe	May	1891	August	1892	
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East Combe	May	1893	May	1894	
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East Combe	May	1909	August	1910	
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West Combe	May	1914	May	1915	
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West Combe	May	1916	January	1917	
East Combe	May	1917	May	1918	
West Combe	May	1918	August	1919	
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West Combe	May	1930	August	1931	
East Combe	May	1931	January	1932	
West Combe	May	1932	May	1933	
East Combe	May	1933	August	1934	
West Combe	May	1934	January	1935	
East Combe	May	1935	May	1936	
West Combe	May	1936	August	1937	
East Combe	May	1937	January	1938	
West Combe	May	1938	May	1939	
East Combe	May	1939	August	1940	
West Combe	May	1940	January	1941	
East Combe	May	1941	May	1942	
West Combe	May	1942	August	1943	
East Combe	May	1943	January	1944	
West Combe	May	1944	May	1945	
East Combe	May	1945	August	1946	
West Combe	May	1946	January	1947	
East Combe	May	1947	May	1948	
West Combe	May	1948	August	1949	
East Combe	May	1949	January	1950	
West Combe	May	1950	May	1951	
East Combe	May	1951	August	1952	
West Combe	May	19			

